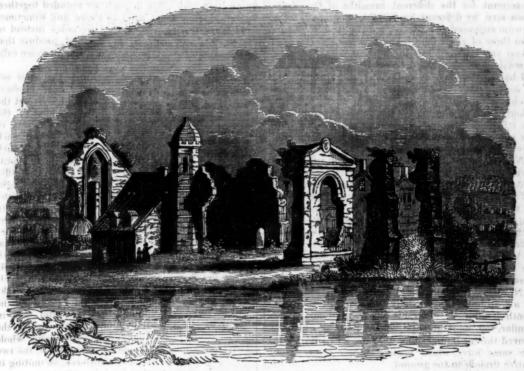
DECEMBER



21st 1839.

DUDLEY. IN WORCESTERSHIRE.



RUINS OF DUDLEY PRIORY.

DUDLEY is situated on the confines of Worcestershire and Staffordshire, part of it being in each county: it may therefore be said to be in either; but we believe it is generally reckoned among the towns of Worcestershire.

The name is supposed to have originated from Dodo, a famous Saxon, who raised the first fortification, on the site of the present ruinous Castle, standing on a hill above the town. This castle, and the manor belonging to it, obtained the name of Dudelie, and was possessed in succession by Earl Edwin, William Fitz Ausculf, and the family of the Paganells. It continued to be occupied as a manor-house during several reigns; until at length, in the 46th of Henry the Third, Roger de Somery, the then holder of the manor, was permitted by the king to build a castle on the hill, the remains of which are still to be seen. The castle passed through several generations of the Somerys, then to the Sutton family, and afterwards to that of Ward, the ancestors of the present Earl of Dudley. The castle was considered as a military fortress till the time of the Commonwealth. During the troubles of Charles the First, Dudley castle held out gallantly in the royal cause, under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Beaumont, for three weeks, until, on the 11th of June, 1644, the royal forces, sent from Worcester, relieved it. The besiegers left one hundred men dead on the field; and two majors of foot, two captains, three lieutenants, and fifty common

soldiers, were taken prisoners. After the Restoration, the castle was dismantled and sold.

Viewed from a distance, the situation and effect of the ruins of the castle are very striking: situated on the summit of a hill, commanding the town and valley beneath, and a prospect over seven English and two Welsh counties, including eighteen churches, many large towns, and a tract of country intersected by lofty ranges of hills, and diversified by the abodes of wealth and elegance. On a near approach, however, much of the effect is lost; for there is nothing to soften down the harshness of the outline of the bare walls, rather incongruously associated with modern buildings, whose deficiency in the picturesque destroy every idea of sombre grandeur that might arise in the mind. This want of wood has been often regretted, particularly as the hill was once well covered; but it is, perhaps, not a cause for muck surprise, considering that the castle itself has been long uninhabitable, and is situated in the immediate vicinity of a manufacturing town,

The castle was once very extensive, occupying an acre of ground; and though begun in the eighth century, consists now of dilapidated fragments of different styles of architecture, among which the keep stands pre-eminent, owing to its great original strength. In this part of the castle was the chapel, of which two windows, rich in tracery, still remain; and here may also the vestiges of the dungeon be seen. While the

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castle was lying desolate and dismantled, in the beginning of the last century, a gang of coiners took up their abode within its dreary ruins, where they carried on their nefarious trade for a considerable time, eluding suspicion by terrifying those who might be prompted by curiosity to visit the place, which they effected by imposing on the credulity and superstition of their neighbours, with strange noises, alarming appearances, and all the machinery which constitutes a "good old" ghost story, or a "haunted castle." From this occupation, however, they were expelled by a fire, in 1750, which rendered desolation still more desolate.

We pass now from the Castle to the Priory. Gervase Paganel, in 1161, founded on the site of St. James's Church, in pursuance of the intention of his father, Ralph Paganel, a priory of Benedictine monks, of the order of Clugni, dedicated to St. James. In 1190, Pope Lucius confirmed the monks in their privileges and possessions: among the former was one, that in case of a general interdiction of the kingdom, the monks of that priory might privately, their doors being shut, and without sound of bell, perform divine service in a low voice, all interdicted or excommunicated persons being first thrust out: among the possessions confirmed to the monks, were the churches of St. James, St. Edmund, and St. Thomas, in Dudley, and about ten churches and chapels in the neighbouring districts.

In 1300 Pope Boniface granted an indulgence to all who should pray for the soul of Roger de Somery, who was buried here, and had been a benefactor to the priory. In the 13th of Edward the First, the prior had licence to assort and impark a heath in the forest of Kinsare. We do not hear much more of this priory until its dissolution: in 1541, Henry the Eighth granted it, as part of the domain of Wenlock, to Sir John Dudley, and the grant was afterwards confirmed to Edward Sutton, Lord Dudley, by Queen Mary. The yearly value was stated at that time to be 33l. 1s. 4d.

Of the priory itself scarcely the smallest vestige remains at the present day; the only portions of the establishment which have withstood the ravages of time, and the destroying hand of man, being part of the conventual church, whose rich Gothic window, at the east end of the building, and some beautiful moulding in other parts, faintly pourtray its original splendour. On the south side of this window is also a niche and canopy for an image, once richly ornamented. The west end is built with a coarser and redder stone than that used in the other parts of the building; and all the arches appear to have been Gothic. Sampson Erdeswicke, who wrote a Survey of Staffordshire, nearly two hundred and fifty years ago, speaks of some monuments that then existed in the priory chapel.

To the east and west of the ruins are large pools of water, apparently the remains of a moat which once encompassed the whole priory. The shattered walls of some of the offices of the priory were some years ago patched up into a dwelling and conveniences for a tanner: afterwards occupied by a manufacturer of thread; and subsequently by other handicraftsmen.

Besides the Castle and the Priory, the two buildings in Dudley which speak most strongly of times long gone by, are the churches of St. Edmund and St. Thomas. There were evidently churches known by those names in the twelfth century, from the grant which was made by Pope Lucius to the priory, and there appears also in still earlier times to have been a church dedicated to St. James; but no such church has been known there for ages. St. Thomas and St.

Edmund's churches were distinct until the civil wars, when they were united, under circumstances which are thus stated in the parish registers:—

Note, that the church of St. Edmund being demolished by Colonel Leveson, in 1646, both parishes did meet in that of St. Thomas, and became as one in all administrations; and so in their offices within a few years afterwards, so that the register book became one also, from thenceforth. On the 16th February, 1646, Mr. John Taylor was settled in the vicarage of Dudley; and had possession given him of the church of St. Thomas, on the 17th of the month. Also the 13th September, 1648, upon the people's petition, it was ordered by the committee for plundered ministers, that both parishes should repair the church of St. Thomas; and by another order they were allowed jointly to meet for divine ordinances therein.

St. Edmund's church was subsequently rebuilt.

There are three charity-schools in Dudley. One was founded about the year 1634, for fifty boys, by Mr. Richard Foley, of Stourbridge; who, recovering some alienated lands, which had been left to charitable uses, and adding something of his own, applied them to this purpose, and built a convenient school-house, Mr. Richard Baxter was the first master. school was established for the education of fifty girls, The third is a free grammar-school, endowed with a revenue of 50l. a year, by two merchants of London; but this revenue has now reached the value of 300%. a year, out of which the master receives 200l. A charity was established in 1819, for clothing seven poor men, from a legacy left by the Rev. H. Antro-bus, for that purpose. There is also a school of industry, where upwards of two hundred girls are educated; besides one or two other schools.

There are besides the parish churches, places of worship for Methodists, Baptists, Independents, and Quakers. There is an extensive subscription library, which was established about thirty years ago. The mayor and other borough officers are appointed annually by the lord of the manor; but the town itself is within the jurisdiction of the county magistrates. The houses are, generally speaking, well built, and the streets clean, well paved, and lighted with gas. The town, in the very earliest times of the existence of the House of Commons, sent members to Parliament; but that privilege was dropped for many centuries, and not renewed until 1832, when the Reform Bill granted one member to the town. The population of Dudley is now about 24,000.

A good deal of manufacturing industry developes itself in and near the town. There are extensive quarries of limestone in the vicinity; from which a tunnel, a mile and three-quarters in length, has been cut through the hill on which the castle stands, for the conveyance of lime from the quarries to the kilns. There is also a large supply of iron ore in the neighbourhood, the working of which gives employment to many persons; besides about six hundred who are engaged in nail making. Coal also abounds, and gives employment to many hundred miners. Glass is also made at Dudley. There are fairs held on the 8th of May and the 2nd of August, for cattle, cheese, and wool; and another fair on the 5th of August, The market-day is on Saturday; and the for lambs. general position of the town may be understood from its distance from others; it being a hundred and twenty-seven miles nearly north-west from London, twenty-six north-east of Worcester, and nine northwest of Birmingham.

Something there is more needful than expense; And something previous e'en to taste—'tis Sense! Good sense—which only is the gift of Heaven; And, though no science, fairly worth the seven.—Porg. 21,

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MATERIALS FOR THE TOILETTE.

No. VII.

On Tooth-Powders and the Management of the Teeth,

VARIOUS kinds of paste and powder for the cleansing and preservation of the teeth are found appended to the well-furnished toilette; and the means which seem best adapted to secure to their owner, the prolonged use and comfort of a good set of teeth, are carefully employed by numbers of persons who have learnt to estimate the value of a healthy state of

this necessary and wonderful structure.

The gradual developement of the teeth after the period of early infancy, and the change of those teeth in a few years for others that are better suited to the increasing size of the jaw, and to the purposes for which they are required, display the same beautiful adaptation of means to suit the necessities of man, which is everywhere visible in the construction of the human frame. The number of teeth is occasionally found to vary in different individuals, but it seldom exceeds thirty-two, (that is, sixteen in each jaw,) or is less than twenty-eight. Each tooth may be said to have two parts, namely the body, or portion above the gums, and the fang or root, fixed in the socket. The outer covering of the body of the tooth is called the cortex, or enamel, a very hard substance of a white colour, which is peculiar to the teeth, and which envelopes and protects the bone within. bone which forms the internal part of the tooth, and the whole of the fang, is harder and more compact than any of the others in the body. There is a cavity within each tooth, which is supplied with blood-vessels and nerves by means of a small hole in the root. Should this hole close, as is sometimes the case in the teeth of old persons, the result is insensibility to

The teeth are usually divided into three classes: incisors, or cutters, four teeth in the front of each jaw; canine, one on each side of the incisors in each jaw; and molars or grinders, ten in each jaw. The last grinder in each side of both the upper and lower jaw is smaller, and arrives later than the rest. Thus it is

called the wisdom-tooth.

We must not be misled by the common error that all dentifrices are injurious and destructive of the enamel of the teeth, that the simple rinsing of the mouth with pure water, or gently rubbing the teeth with a soft brush or with a sponge is all that is necessary to keep them clean and healthy, for a very little observation has been sufficient to prove that in spite of the constant use of these means, a gradual deposition of what is called tartar has taken place, and that that great enemy to the beauty, health, and soundness of the teeth has so far established itself on their inner, if not on their outer surfaces, as to defy the power of tooth-brushes and tooth-powders henceforward for its removal. Thus an evil which might have been easily prevented by a little daily attention to the teeth, with the use of proper brushes and some simple powder, has become so confirmed, that either the dentist must be called in to remove by the aid of his instruments the firmly adhering tartar, or some powerful acid must be used, which may probably inflict a lasting injury on the enamel of the teeth, or it must be allowed to accumulate until (besides the unsightly appearance produced) it excites irritation and inflammation of the gums, gradually causes them to withdraw their support, and finally occasions the loosening and dropping out of the teeth before they have become subject to decay, and at an earlier period than according to the course of nature, such an effect could be produced. We do not mean to assert that all persons are equally subject to this evil. In the case of some individuals, the deposition of tartar is not so abundant or so injurious in its effects as in that of others, but wherever it is found, it is the enemy of the teeth, and if neglected will lead to their ultimate loss. There are other sources of injury and decay which it will not concern us here to speak of, but as the removal of tartar is, at its early deposition, within the power of every person, and as it may sometimes increase without the knowledge or observation of those who have but little time to bestow on the duties of the toilette, we proceed to some further notice of this substance, and of the means to be employed in preventing its formation in a concrete state, or, if that be already

the case, in effecting its removal.

The tartar of the teeth consists of animal matter, and earthy phosphates. It is held in solution by the saliva, on the evaporation of which it becomes deposited on those parts of the teeth which are protected from the action of the tongue. It varies according to the constitution of the individual and the nature of the food, but the deposition has been observed to be largest in the case of persons who speak much, and thus allow opportunity for a greater evaporation of the saliva than ordinary. At first the tartar is deposited in a soft state, and there is no difficulty whatever in removing it, but in a short time it grows firm and solid, and takes possession of the crevices between the teeth and of the lower part of their surface close to the gum. It accumulates chiefly in the lower jaw, and is first discerned on the incisors, where owing to the dark hue it imparts, and the occasional roughness experienced by the tongue coming in contact with it, it is often mistaken for the commencement of decay. If no means are taken to remove it from the inner surface, it finally extends to the outside, and proceeds from the tip of the gum, nearly to the cutting or grinding surface of the teeth. The necessity for arresting its progress, ere it accumulates to this degree, will be evident, when we consider that not only is the individual thus circumstanced deprived of the advantage to his appearance of a good set of teeth, but he has also to look forward to diseases of the gum, to the falling out of his teeth before they are in themselves diseased, and, what is even more important, he is very likely to suffer in his general health, for it is the opinion of dentists and, medical men that a neglected state of the teeth, leads to a contamination of the secretions of the mouth, and acts with a more or less injurious effect on the stomach and the other digestive organs.

In objection to what has been stated, it may be said that so much care cannot be more necessary in our case than in that of the people of uncivilized nations, who generally appear to have good teeth and who are not likely to bestow any attention on their preservation. In answer to this we may observe that in the primitive modes of life, the simplicity of diet, and the abundance of exercise, tend to preserve general health, and at the same time act as a preventive to many of the minor evils which we suffer from, and as to the neglect of the teeth attributed to men in a barbarous state, we are not warranted in charging them with it, for travellers have mentioned their peculiar modes of performing this operation, and the inventions they employ to answer the purpose of our brushes, &c. It is said that even the Malays and Japanese, who dye their teeth black, are careful to

clean them after every repast.

It now remains to speak of the best methods of preserving the valuable gift of a good set of teeth, and of arresting the evils to which we, owing to our

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manner of life, are more subject than the rude and uncivilized portion of mankind. In the first place attention to the teeth should begin early. As soon as the permanent teeth begin to take the place of those which are called the milk teeth a greater share of attention becomes necessary, and instead of allowing children to neglect the use of the tooth-brush, until they are twelve or fourteen years of age, parents should encourage the habit of brushing the teeth every morning and evening from the period at which the change takes place. From this practice, regularly adhered to, the most beneficial results might be expected to ensue. In the next place, proper materials should be employed in the cleansing of the teeth. Brushes should be firm and elastic, not so stiff as to injure the gums and scratch the enamel, or so pliant as to do their work imperfectly. They should be of convenient size for introducing to the extremity of the jaw, so that the more remote teeth, as well as the prominent ones, may be thoroughly brushed on all sides, and the inner surfaces of the teeth duly attended to. Tooth powder should be simple, and of such a character as to cleanse the teeth without injuring the enamel. A mixture of two parts of chalk, and one of well burned charcoal, in fine powder, is an excellent dentifrice. Red bole, cuttle fish, pumice stone, &c. are frequently employed: the latter, however, is objectionable on account of its hardness. These simple powders may be considered inefficient to produce the dazzling whiteness of the teeth desired by many persons, but with early and persevering attention, they will be found all that can be wished for. Where neglect and indifference have brought the teeth into a bad state, and they have become greatly discoloured or covered with tartar, something more is requisite to restore them to their natural appearance. If the acid of some more powerful dentifrice is employed, and the tartar still remains on the teeth, the next step to be taken is, its removal by means of dental instruments, or an application to the dentist himself. The removal of tartar by means of a few simple instruments, which may be easily procured, is in our opinion a very safe operation, and one which any person may perform for himself, without fear of injury to the structure of the teeth. It is scarcely necessary to add that the teeth having been once cleared of the tartar, care should be taken to prevent its reformation by the use of the brush and powder as before described, so that a frequent use of instruments may be avoided. Before we close these remarks we may add the recipe for a dentifrice which has been found beneficial in its effects, although it ought only to be used occasionally. Take of alum and myrrh each one ounce, of camphor and of cream of tartar each half an ounce, and reduce the whole to an impalpable powder.

We have not yet alluded to the management of the teeth, when they have begun to show symptoms of decay. The method of treating the diseased tooth should differ according to the part affected. If the carious part be near the surface, it may be completely cut out, and the tooth saved for future usefulness; if in the very heart of the tooth, there can be little done for it, except the application of creasote, which will probably relieve the pain of tooth-ache, or the trial of one of the various ways of stopping up the cavity with metal, cement, &c., or the extraction of the tooth.

It should be remembered that the extremes of heat and cold are alike injurious to the enamel of the teeth and that when this beautiful surface is once injured the internal structure will speedily become liable to decay. On minute inspection, the most beautiful set of teeth will scarcely be found free from injury in this respect. Numerous small cracks may be observed, branching out in all directions, and these probably have been occasioned by the cause we have just named. These cracks admit air and moisture to the tooth, which the enamel was intended to protect from both, and at length a sensation of pain accompanies exposure to the cold air, or the use of liquids that approach the extremes of heat and cold.

INSCRIPTION IN A CHURCH-YARD:

"DO NOT PLUCK THE FLOWERS; THEY ARE SACRED
TO THE DEAD!"
On! spare the flowers, the fair young flowers,

The free glad gift the summer brings;

Bright children of the sun and showers, Here do they rise, earth's offerings. Rich be the dew upon you shed, Green be the bough that o'er you waves, Weariless watchers by the dead, Unblenching dwellers 'midst the graves! Oh spare the flowers! their sweet perfume, Upon the wandering zephyr cast, And lingering o'er the lowly tomb, Is like the memory of the past. They flourish freshly, though beneath Lie the dark dust and creeping worm, They speak of Hope, they speak of Faith, They smile, like rainbows, through the storm. Pluck not the flowers—the sacred flowers ! Go where the garden's treasures spread. Where strange bright blossoms deck the bowers, mob And spicy trees their odours shed. the policy are

And spicy trees their odours shed.

There pluck, if thou delightest, indeed,
To shorten life so brief as theirs,
But here the admonition heed—
A blessing on the hand that spares.

Pluck not the flowers! In days gone by
A heantiful belief was felt.

A beautiful belief was felt,
That fairy spirits of the sky
Amidst the trembling blossoms dwelt.
Perhaps the dead have many a guest,
Holier than any that are ours,
Perhaps their guardian angels rest
Enshrined amidst the gentle flowers!
Hast thou no loved one lying low,

No broken reed of earthly trust?

Hast thou not felt the bitter woe
With which we render dust to dust?

Thou hast! and in one cherished spot,
Unseen, unknown to earthly eyes,
Within their heart, the unforgot
Entombed in silent beauty lies.

Memory and faith, and love, so deep
No earthly storm can reach it more—
Affection, that hath ceased to weep,
These flourish in thy bosom's core.
Spare then the flowers! With gentle tread
Draw near, remembering what thou art,

For blossoms sacred to the dead,
Are ever springing in thy heart.
[M. A Browne, in the Dublin University Magazine.]

THERE are, in Great Britain and Ireland, six or seven million head of cattle. But these do not afford a supply of leather sufficiently large for the numerous uses to which it serves. We import hides from Lithuania, and other provinces of Russia, where the cattle run wild in the forests; and in Paraguay the vast herds which range the boundless plains, are pursued and skinned, while the rest of the animal is of so little value, that the carcase is left to rot upon the ground. The troubled state of these South American states has kept up the price of leather, by preventing the trade in skins. The largest tanneries in the world are at Bermondsev, on the outskirts of London.

sey, on the outskirts of London.

The value of articles made of leather is fifteen millions per annum, and shoes take more than one half of that amount. Leather is not an article we export, for other nations can supply themselves more cheaply than we can. Gloves are made at Worcester, Yeovil, Ludlow, and Woodstock.

the two harbours; Acradina, extending along





ST. JOHN'S CHAPEL, OVER THE CATACOMBS AT SYRACUSE.

Ir has been justly said, that the fame of states now no longer existing, lives in books or traditions, and we reverence their memory in proportion to the wisdom of their laws, the private virtues of their citizens. the policy and courage with which they defended their own dominions, or advanced their victorious standards against those of their enemies. Some nations which have rendered their name illustrious, through their virtues and valour, had but a very confined sphere to move in; while other commonwealths and monarchies have subdued worlds, and roamed over whole continents in search of power and glory. Syracuse must be numbered in the former class, and among the most distinguished of that class: in public and private wealth, magnificence of buildings, military renown, and excellence in arts and sciences, it ranked higher than most nations of antiquity; the great names recorded in its annals still command our veneration, though the trophies of their victories, and the monuments of their skill, have long been swept away by the hand of time or of violence.

SYRACUSE is a town or city situated in Sicily,-a town resembling Rome or Athens, by the intermixture of modern buildings with the mouldering remains of antiquity. It was founded by a colony of Corinthians, more than 700 years before the Christian era, and became the largest and most wealthy city in Sicily, possessing, according to Thucydides, 300,000 inhabitants, a larger number than that contained by Athens, or any other Grecian city. It was at one time governed as a republic, and at others by Gelon, Hiero, Dionysius, and other rulers. It was besieged, B. C. 414, by the Athenians; and again, B. c. 215, by the Romans under Marcellus and Appius. It was defended for nearly three years by the genius and enterprise of Archimedes, but at length fell into the hands of the Romans, 212 s. c.; in whose hands it continued till the downfall of the empire. The Vandals then seized it, from whom it was afterwards wrested by the Goths. From the Goths it passed into the hands of the Emperor of the East, and from him to the Saracens. Subsequently, it was taken by Roger of Naples, and has since then shared the mutations of European States.

The ancient city was of a triangular form, twentytwo miles in circuit, and consisted of four parts, surrounded by distinct walls; viz., Ortygia, between the two harbours; Acradina, extending along the seaside; Tyche, an inland division; and Neapolis, forming the western part. All these parts now present ruins replete with associations for the classical student. In the quarter of Ortygia is a large pool of water defended from the sea by a wall, and almost hidden by houses on every other side; the water is not salt, but brackish, and fit for no purpose but washing linen. This was once the celebrated fountain of Arethusa, on which the poetical imaginations of the ancients founded the fable of Alpheus and Arethusa.

The quarter of Acradina contains, among other records of antiquity, the celebrated Catacombs. In the low grounds of the district stands the church of St. John, represented in our engraving, one of the oldest Christian churches in Sicily. The pillars are in the oldest, heaviest, and simplest style of Gothic. But the principal circumstance connected with it is, that it covers the entrance to the catacombs. These catacombs are subterranean vaults, consisting of numerous streets, hewn with great care and regularity. The principal street or avenue is about ten feet high. and runs to a great distance in a straight direction, being full as broad as the generality of streets in a Sicilian town; but its whole length cannot be determined, as the sinking of the ground has filled it up in one part. As the traveller advances, he observes deep contiguous recesses on each side, cut in the rock, with arched roofs containing many recesses for the dead; some of them appear to have been private property, from the vestiges of gates and locks by which they were secured. A great number of streets run parallel to the principal one, which is also intersected by transverse ones at oblique and right angles; whilst others, taking a circuitous course, lead to spacious squares and corridors, formed by different converging avenues. In the more conspicuous situation which these areas afford, there are found many detached tombs of a large size, which were probably destined for the heads of families. The walls of the recesses are covered with a fine stucco, painted upon a vermilion ground with various colours and devices, among which may be perceived a number of monograms and symbolical devices, palm trees, doves, peacocks, and funeral ceremonies; but the smoke of torches has greatly impaired the beauty of their designs. These extensive vaults are ventilated by the external air, admitted through conical or bell-shaped apertures over the above-mentioned squares and corridors In

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exploring the burial-place of the ancient Syracusans, the traveller is surprised to find himself returned to the same spot whence he set out, but on a lower story. When these sepulchral chambers are illuminated with torches, the lurid glare of the light produces a curious and even sublime effect. It appears like a high and solemn festival in honour of the dead; a vivid imagination might picture to itself shades of ancient saints and martyrs starting from their deep repose, and gliding down the long arcades, till they are lost in the distant gloom. But without entering into the field of imagination, we may state that these catacombs are supposed to have originated by quarrying for the purpose of extracting stone; that in the hollows thus excavated, the primitive faithful assembled secretly in times of persecution; and that they were afterwards employed as burial-places.

On a hill near St. John's chapel, is a convent of Capuchins, to which is attached a garden contained in the area of immense excavations, made by cutting stone for the ancient city. The vaults of the convent have the property of drying the bodies of the dead in a very short space of time; after which they are dressed in religious habits, and placed as statues in niches on each side of subterranean vaults*.

The quarter of Neapolis contains the far-famed "Ear of Dionysius," of which a wood cut has appeared in the Saturday Mayazine, Vol. XIV., p. 140. Round a very spacious court or area, runs a high wall of rock, so artfully cut, as to cause the upper part to project very visibly out of the perpendicular line, and thereby defeat every attempt to climb up. Near the summit of the rock is a channel, which conveys part of the waters of an aqueduct to the city, and can with ease, at any time, be stopped and turned into the area or open court. In the centre of the court, is a large insulated stone, and upon it the ruins of a guard-house. Vast caverns penetrate into the heart of the rock, and serve, in our own day, for saltpetre works and rope walks; but the most noted of the excavations is the ear above alluded to. It is 18 feet wide, and 58 high, and runs into the heart of the hill, in the form of a capital S. The sides are chiselled very smooth, and the roof is coved, gradually narrowing, almost to as sharp a point as a Gothic arch: along this point runs a groove or channel, which served, as is supposed, to collect the sounds that rose from the speakers below, and convey them to a pipe in a small double cell above, where they were heard with the greatest distinctness; but this hearing-place having been too much opened and altered, has lost its-virtue, as those who have been let down from the top by a rope have found. There is a recess like a chamber about the middle of the cave, and the bottom of the grotto is rounded off. Some writers have doubted whether this excavation could have possessed the properties attributed to it; but Swinburne thinks it impossible, after an attentive survey of the place, to doubt of its having been constructed intentionally for a prison, and alistening place. Rings are cut out of the angles of the walls, where no doubt the more obnoxious criminals were fastened. The echo at the mouth of the grotto is very loud; the tearing of a piece of paper will make as great a noise, as a blow of a cudgel on a board will produce in the open air: a gun yields a report resembling thunder, which continues to reverberate for several seconds. It is said that an Italian musician of the seventeenth century, composed a canon for two voices, which, when sung in this cavern, appeared to be performed by four.

Neapolis also contains the remains of an immense amphitheatre, which was three hundred feet in length,

and two hundred in breadth. As the greater portion of this place of entertainment was hewn out of the solid rock, little detriment has accrued from the lapse of ages; but all which was built upon this foundation has disappeared. What remains forms a most romantic scene, for the white steps are half hid with bushes of various kinds: some tall poplars wave their heads over the ruin, and the waters, in cascades and beautiful masses, fall from rock to rock. When the amphitheatre was in its perfect state, the approach to the upper seats was upon a level with Tyche: Acradina lay even with the middle part; and the people from Ortygia and Neapolis ascended to it. Two broad roads carried deep through the rock in a semicircular form, meeting at the theatre, opened easy communication between the high and the low town. On each side sepulchral caves are hollowed out, and some still retain the bodies deposited within them. No part of the proscenium now remains, the stone having been used in making fortifications, though many quarries were open all round, where stones might have been procured with almost equal ease.

There are numerous other remains of antiquity, in the wide extent of ground on which formerly stood Syracuse, but we must quit them, in order to say a few words respecting the modern town. The only part at present inhabited, is the south-east corner of the old town, comprising the quarter of Ortygia, and part of that of Acradina. It is insulated, walled, and entered by drawbridges. The streets are regular, but narrow, and the houses tolerably built. It contains a number of churches and convents, and a hospital. The ancient temple of Minerva is now used as a cathedral, but when it was used in its former acceptation, a statue of Minerva was placed on the top, holding a broad refulgent shield. Every Syracusan that sailed out of the port, was bound by his religion to carry honey, flowers, and ashes, which he threw into the sea, the instant he lost sight of the holy shield: this was to ensure a safe return.

The landscape around Syracuse, is described as being exceedingly magnificent; the majestic Mount Ætna appearing in the background towards the northwest. But everywhere are seen symptoms of those terrible visitations, earthquakes, to which Sicily has been much subject. A very destructive shock was experienced in the sixteenth century. But a far greater occurred in 1693; on the 11th of January, the earth shook during a period of four minutes, and overturned almost every town on the eastern coast of Sicily; one fourth of the inhabitants of Syracuse, perished under the ruins of their houses, and at another town, Augusta, one half of the inhabitants were crushed to death.

Although a population of three hundred thousand souls once filled Syracuse, it does not now contain more than twenty thousand. It is called Siragosa by the Italians and Sicilians.

To read with Newton's ken the starry sky,
And God the same in all his orbs descry;
To lead forth Merit from her humble shade;
Extend to rising arts a patron's aid;
Build the nice structure of the generous law,
That holds the freeborn mind in willing awe;
To swell the sail of Trade; the barren plain
To bid with fruitage blush, and wave with grain;
O'er pale Misfortune drop, with anxious sigh,
Pity's mild balm, and wipe Affliction's eye;
These, these are deeds Britannia must approve,
Must nurse their growth with all a parent's love;
These are the deeds that public Virtue owns,
And, just to public Virtue, Glory crowns.

BISHOF BATSON

[.] See Saturday Magazine, Vol. VII., p. 183.

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THE SHARK. I.

Increasing still the terrors of these storms,
His jaws horrific armed with threefold fate,
Here dwells the direful shark. Lured by the scent
Of steaming crowds, of rank disease and death,
Behold! he rushing cuts the briny flood,
Swift as the gale can bear the ship along;
And from the partners of that cruel trade,
Which spoils unhappy Guinea of her sons,
Demands his share of prey; demands themselves.
The stormy fates descend: one death involves
Tyrants and slaves; when straight their mangled limbs,
Crashing at once, he dyes the purple seas
With gore, and riots in the vengeful meal.—Thomson.

THERE is no animal regarded with a more fearful and deadly hatred by the sailor than the Shark; an animal whose powers of destruction are of the most formidable description. It follows the ship for miles together, watching for whatever may be thrown overboard, and seizing it with greedy avidity; thus tending by its presence to remind the sailor of the dangers of the deep. No wonder, then, that all on board unite in one common cause against this their unsparing enemy. To entrap a shark, and torture it to death with the most refined cruelty, is an employment which those navigating the seas of warmer climes deem a praiseworthy duty.

CARCHARIAS, or Sharks, properly so called, form only a few members of a numerous, powerful, and celebrated family of cartilaginous fishes, called Squalidæ, or the Shark family. The genus Carcharias includes numerous species; but we propose to confine the anecdotal description we are about to give to the white shark, whose tremendous powers, and the fearful effects resulting from their exercise in the native seas of this fish, form generally the popular account of all sharks.

The white, or common, shark, (Carcharias vulgaris) has a long body, covered with a hard tuberculated skin, of a brownish ash colour above, and white below. Its head is large; the muzzle rather short and depressed, and pierced with numerous pores. Its tongue is short, rough, and cartilaginous. The upper jaw is furnished with six rows of sharp, cutting, triangular teeth; the under jaw with four rows, with sharper points, but not so thin. The pectoral, or breast-fins, are large and powerful: the first dorsal, or back-fin, is elevated: the ventral, or belly-fins, are small: the caudal, or tail-fin, is forked. Indeed the whole structure of the fish, and its great strength, enable it to move with wonderful rapidity, and to perform the same part in the economy of the deep, as tigers and other savage beasts of prey perform on land.

The white shark frequently attains, in the tropical seas, the length of more than 30 feet. The only part of the structure of this animal which seems ill adapted to its habits, is the position of the mouth, which, being placed on the under side of the head, obliges it to turn half round upon its back, in order to seize any object above itself: but this position of the mouth is of advantage, when the animal's food is, as is generally the case, below it at the bottom of the sea. The mouth is deep; and the opening is often as much as three or four feet in diameter; so that this fish is capable of swallowing animals of a large size: a whole carcase, with none of the limbs separated, has often been found in its maw. These creatures are said to scent their prey from an immense distance; and it has been stated by nautical men, who have been engaged in warm seas, that the shark delights in the scene of carnage: that, unscared by the terrors of the battle, it adds a new terror of its own, more revolting, if possible, than the horrible strife of men. sharks too, follow the peaceful vessel, and pick up

whatever is thrown overboard; and when the inhuman traffic in Negro slaves was once so common, shoals of sharks followed in the wake of the slaveship, waiting impatiently for the bodies of the miserable wretches who had died through confinement and disease. The poet alludes to this circumstance in the extract which stands at the head of the present article.

The shark is so voracious, that in pursuing its prey, it has often been known to fling itself out of the water, and alight on the shore. Its eagerness for food is so great, that it will leap out of the water to the height of twenty feet, to seize a tempting bait. It feeds on its own species; a propensity which is not uncommon to many other kinds of fishes. It has often happened that on cutting open a large shark, smaller ones have been found in the stomach: hence has arisen the vulgar error, that in times of danger the young of the shark take refuge in the stomach of their mother.

When a shark is harpooned, and not able to escape, its companions will generally tear it to pieces. The shark seems to have no favourite food in particular. It will eat seals and mollusca indiscriminately, and provided the quantity be large, the quality is not of much consequence. In fact the shark seems to be the sea-scavenger: its office is to remove animal matter, which, especially in warm climates, would soon putrefy and corrupt the waters and the air: it performs in the deep the same office as that of the carnivorous animals on land; but its dominion being so much more extended, it is endowed with increased powers of consumption and motion.

It is not very difficult to capture the shark: its voracity prompts it to seize with eagerness almost any bait that is held out. The usual mode is to bury a large strong hook in a mass of fat, and to attach the hook to a strong iron chain. If not excited by hunger, the animal will approach the bait, and turn it about with its nose, as if to examine it. It will play about it for a considerable time, and make many sham attempts to swallow it. But if the bait be snatched up, as if it were going to be withdrawn, the shark, fearful of losing its prey, will suddenly seize it, when, finding itself caught, it will make the most violent efforts to escape, endeavouring to divide the chain with its teeth: it will then lash with its tail, and become furious. It even endeavours to get rid of the hook by disgorging the contents of its stomach. The animal is allowed to enfeeble itself by these violent efforts: its head is then raised a little above water: a rope, with a running noose, is thrown out over the tail, and drawn tight: it is thus easily raised on board ship.

The formidable mouth of the shark, its tough skin, its enormous strength, and rapidity of motion, make it the tyrant and despot of the sea. Its only successful enemy, next to man, is, perhaps, the great spermaceti whale. When these two monsters meet, there is often a desperate encounter; but the whale is generally the victor. A shark, seventeen feet long, has been found in the stomach of one of these whales. The shark is also annoyed by numerous animals which infest its alimentary canal. Such animals are called Entozoa, or parasitic animals, which live within other animals; and it has been supposed that these internal tormentors urge the animal thus inhabited to madness, so that it dashes itself ashore, in the vain hope of escaping from them. This cause, together with the known eagerness of the shark in pursuing its prey, will account for the numbers which are often found on the coasts of their native seas.

The shark produces its young from a sort of egg,

the shell-case of which is brown, and resembles leather. This egg is oblong in form, with tendrils curling from its corners. The young are hatched in these shells, and when sufficiently grown, the end of the case is pushed out by the young shark, (then about seven or eight inches long), which swims out to begin its destructive career.

The flesh of the shark is seldom fit for food, except to the rude Negro, who overcomes its hardness and toughness by hanging it up for a week or two, when putrefaction renders the fibres softer: he then eats and enjoys his shark meal. The fat of the shark can be kept for a long time: it hardens by being kept: the Icelanders use it instead of lard, and eat it with their prepared fish: it is generally boiled down into oil. The liver of the shark also affords a large quantity of oil. In Norway the skin of the shark is employed for harness, and in Greenland it enters into the construction of canoes. The fins are often used as polishing tools by the carver and worker in hard wood.

Sharks' teeth are frequently dug up with fossil remains. The writer of this article has in his possession various specimens of fossil sharks' teeth, and he has seen one in which the enamelled portion was four inches and a quarter in length. "That this tooth belonged to one of the family of the sharks," says a modern geologist, "there can be no doubt, and a practised eye will see that it was a species very nearly resembling the white shark, if not identical," by some just calculations as to the size of the shark from whence this tooth proceeded, the same writer makes it appear that it must have exceeded seventy feet in length; and calculating the size of its throat according to our observations on the existing species, the arch of its upper jaw must have been upwards of thirteen feet in length; and as the soft parts which unite the two jaws are capable of great extension, the total circumference of the opening of the mouth was at least twenty-six feet, and the medium diameter nearly nine feet. "But although," says the same writer, "we now meet with no examples of sharks of this size, is it not possible that in those parts of the

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ocean which lie out of the tract of commerce, and from which the severity of the climate, or the violence of tempests, has driven navigators, creatures resembling this may be found, who, in those unfrequented places, enjoy perfect tranquillity, or, more properly, complete impunity; so that those who thousands of years since infested the margins of the Pyrenees, may likewise have lived sufficiently long to have attained the size we have mentioned?" We may add to this the known gigantic size of many other fossil animals, and, by parity of reasoning, there is nothing ridiculous in inferring a shark to have existed formerly of the length of seventy feet.

If the reader will turn to Vol. III. of the Saturday Magazine, p. 186, he will find described a fearful encounter between an Indian and a shark. In our next article we will give another such example.

Should any one applaud the justice and utility of human institutions, and plead this applause in vindication of transgressing, or even instead of observing them, such a plea might expose him to ridicule, but could not screen him from punishment. As preposterously does that man act, who contents himself with confessing Christ, though he does not overcome the world, who admits the right of Almighty God to enforce obedience; in the moment he has determined to disobey, and who arrogates to himself the privileges of a child, while he spurns from him the authority of the Father by whom they are conferred.—Dr. Parr.

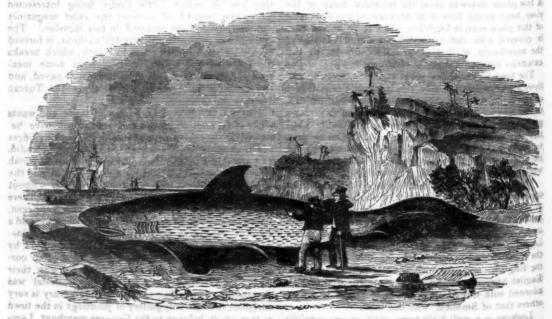
In the slow progress of some insidious disease, which is scarcely regarded by its cheerful and unconscious victim, it is mournful to mark the smile of gaiety as it plays aver that very bloom, which is not the freshness of health, but the flush of approaching mortality, amid studies, perhaps, just opening into intellectual excellence, and hopes and plans of generous ambition that are never to be fuffilled. But how much more painful is it, to behold that equally insidious and far more desolating progress with which guilty passion steals upon the heart, when there is still sufficient virtue to feel remorse; and to sigh at the remembrance of pure years, but not sufficient to throw off the guilt, which is selt to be oppressive, and to return to that purity in which it would again, in its bitter moments, gladly take sheller, if only it had energy to vanquish the almost irresistible habit that would tear it back!—Brown.

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